Radiative Processes

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• In order to determine $\vec{A}(\vec{x},t)$ and $\Phi(\vec{x},t)$, we need to solve the wave equation with source terms. For a generic field $\Psi(\vec{x},t)$,

$$\nabla^2 \Psi - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t^2} = -4\pi f(\vec{x}, t). \tag{1}$$

It is convenient to use the Fourier time-domain,

$$\psi(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi(\vec{x},\omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega, \qquad (2)$$

whose inverse is

$$\psi(\vec{x},\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi(\vec{x},t) e^{i\omega t} dt.$$
 (3)

Injecting Ec. 2 in Ec. 1, we reach the Helmholtz equation:

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)\Psi(\vec{x}, \omega) = -4\pi f(\vec{x}, \omega). \tag{4}$$



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 The Helmholtz equation Eq. 4 is very similar to the Poisson equation, and we can anticipate the use of similar machinery in its solution. The Green function satisfies

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)G_k(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = -4\pi\delta(\vec{x}, \vec{x}'). \tag{5}$$

- Changing coordinates to a system with origin in \vec{x}' , we see that Eq. 5 has spherical symmetry, and $G_k(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = G_k(R)$, with $R = |\vec{R}|$ and $\vec{R} = \vec{x} \vec{x}'$
- Eq. 5 can thus be written as

$$\frac{1}{R}\frac{d^2}{dR^2}(R\,G_k) + k^2G_k = -4\pi\delta(\vec{R}). \tag{6}$$

- If $R \neq 0$, the solution to Eq. 6 is $RG_k = Ae^{ikR} + Be^{-ikR}$, where the constants A y B do not depend on k. In order to dertermine these constants, we use the case k = 0, i.e. Poisson, whose solution is $G_{k=0}(R) = 1/R$, $\longrightarrow A + B = 1$.
- Thus the general solution to Eq. 6 is

$$G_k(R) = AG_k^+(R) + BG_k^-(R)$$
, with $G_k^{\pm} = \frac{e^{\pm ikR}}{R}$ and $A + B = 1$. (7)



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• The A and B values depend on the initial conditions, i.e. on the boundary conditions in time. To see this, we return to the time domain and we generalize Eq. 5:

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial t^2}\right) G^{\pm}(\vec{x}, t; \vec{x}', t') = -4\pi \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') \delta(t - t'). \tag{8}$$

• Now, returning to the frequency domain ω , we generalize Eq. 5 to

$$(\nabla^2 + k^2)G_k(\vec{x}, \vec{x}'; t') = -4\pi\delta(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')e^{i\omega t'}, \qquad (9)$$

with solution $G_k^{\pm}(R)e^{i\omega t'}$.

To return once more to the time domain, we use Eq. 2, and

$$G^{\pm}(R;t,t')=G^{\pm}(R, au)=rac{1}{2\pi}\intrac{e^{\pm ikR-i\omega au}}{R}d\omega,$$

where $\tau = t - t'$.



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• For a non-dispersive medium (one with $\omega/k=c$), we reach

$$G^{\pm}(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t') = \frac{\delta\left(t' - \left[t \mp \frac{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|}{c}\right]\right)}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|} \tag{10}$$

 We apply this Green function to write the generic solutions of Ec. 1:

$$\Psi^{\pm}(\vec{x},t) = \int d^3x' dt' G^{\pm}(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t') f(\vec{x}',t'). \tag{11}$$

• The $^+$ case corresponds to the retarded solution, with an entry or an initial condition $\psi_{\rm in}$ (valid before the sources f are activated, at t=0, so $f(\vec{x},t)=0$ if t<0):

$$\Psi^{+}(\vec{x},t) = \Psi_{\rm in}(\vec{x},t) + \int d^{3}x' dt' G^{+}(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t') f(\vec{x}',t'), \tag{12}$$

where we see that if t<0, there is no \vec{x} for any given \vec{x}' such that $\left[t-\frac{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}{c}\right]>0$. Hence if t<0, $\int d^3x'dt'G^+(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t')f(\vec{x}',t')=0$, and $\Psi(\vec{x},t)=\Psi_{\rm in}(\vec{x},t)$.



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• Instead the $^-$ case corresponds to the anticipated solution, with an exit condition Ψ_{out} (after the sources f are deactivated, at t=0, so $f(\vec{x},t)=0$ if t>0)).

$$\Psi^{-}(\vec{x},t) = \Psi_{\text{out}}(\vec{x},t) + \int d^{3}x' dt' G^{-}(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t') f(\vec{x}',t'),$$
(13)

where we see that if t>0, there is no \vec{x} for any given \vec{x}' such that $\left[t+\frac{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}{c}\right]<0$. Hence if t>0, $\int d^3x'dt'G^-(\vec{x},t;\vec{x}',t')f(\vec{x}',t')=0$, and $\Psi(\vec{x},t)=\Psi_{\rm out}(\vec{x},t)$.

• In general we use the retarded solution Ψ^+ .



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2.1- Application of the Green function to the electrodynamic potentials

• We normally use the retarded solution, with initial condition $\Psi_{in}=0$, or, in compact notation,

$$\Psi(\vec{x},t) = \int d^3x' \frac{[f(\vec{x}',t')]_{\text{ret}}}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|},$$
 (14)

where $[(\cdots)]_{re}$ means to evaluate in $t' = t - |\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|/c$.

Applying to the electrodynamic potentials,

$$\Phi(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \int d^3x' \frac{[\rho(\vec{x'},t')]_{\text{ret}}}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x'}|}, \qquad (15)$$

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \frac{[\vec{J}(\vec{x}',t')]_{\text{ret}}}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}.$$
 (16)



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2.2- Retarded electromagnetic field

- In order to calculate \vec{E} and \vec{B} , we use $\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}$ and $\vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla}\phi \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}$.
- Alternatively, we can use the Maxwell equations to reach:

$$\nabla^{2}\vec{E} - \frac{1}{c^{2}}\frac{\partial^{2}\vec{E}}{\partial t^{2}} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon_{o}}\left(-\vec{\nabla}\rho - \frac{1}{c^{2}}\frac{\partial\vec{J}}{\partial t}\right), \quad (17)$$

$$\nabla^2 \vec{B} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} = -\mu_\circ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{J}. \tag{18}$$

Using the Green function, we get

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \int d^3x' \frac{1}{R} \left[-\vec{\nabla}'\rho - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{J}}{\partial t'} \right]_{\text{ret}}, (19)$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \frac{1}{R} \left[\vec{\nabla}' \times \vec{J} \right]_{\text{ret}}.$$
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2.2- Retarded electromagnetic field

 The expressions for the retarded fields Eqs. 19 and 21 can also be written in a form that connects directly with the static expressions (tarea):

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \int d^{3}x' \left\{ \frac{\hat{R}}{R^{2}} \left[\rho(\vec{x}',t') \right]_{\text{ret}} + \frac{\hat{R}}{cR} \left[\frac{\partial \rho(\vec{x}',t')}{\partial t} \right]_{\text{ret}} - \frac{1}{c^{2}R} \left[\frac{\partial \vec{J}}{\partial t} \right]_{\text{ret}} \right\}$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{\mu_{o}}{4\pi} \int d^{3}x' \left\{ \left[\vec{J}(\vec{x}',t') \right]_{\text{ret}} \times \frac{\hat{R}}{R^{2}} + \left[\frac{\partial \vec{J}(\vec{x}',t')}{\partial t} \right]_{\text{ret}} \times \frac{\hat{R}}{cR} \right\}$$
(22)



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3.1- Wave zone Wave zone

 We now consider harmonic sources (the general case can be obtained by superposition of such sources):

$$\rho(\vec{x},t) = \rho(\vec{x})e^{-i\omega t},
\vec{J}(\vec{x},t) = \vec{J}(\vec{x})e^{-i\omega t}.$$
(23)

• We saw that in the presence of sources, the field $\vec{A}(\vec{x},t)$ generated in vacuum, and without spatial boundaries, is

$$ec{\mathcal{A}}(ec{x},t) = rac{\mu_\circ}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \int dt' rac{ec{J}(ec{x}',t')}{|ec{x}-ec{x}'|} \delta\left(t' + rac{|ec{x}-ec{x}'|}{c} - t
ight).$$

For harmonic sources,

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = e^{-i\omega t} \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \frac{\vec{J}(\vec{x}')e^{ik|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}, \qquad (24)$$

with $k = \omega/c$



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3.1- Wave zone Wave zone

• We then obtain \vec{H} and \vec{E} with

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_{\circ}} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A},\tag{25}$$

and Faraday's law,

$$\vec{E} = \frac{i}{k} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{\circ}}{\epsilon_{\circ}}} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{H}. \tag{26}$$

- We now consider sources confined inside a region whose maximum extension is d, and that contains the origin. If d
 « λ, there are 3 regions of interest:
 - The near zone, with $d < r \ll \lambda$, where $e^{ik|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|} \sim 1$ and we recover the static potentials except for harmonic oscillation, $\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \vec{A}(\vec{x})e^{-i\omega t}$.
 - The intermediate zone with $d \ll r \sim \lambda$.
 - The far zone, with $\lambda \ll r$.



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3.1- Wave zone Wave zone

• In the far zone, with $\lambda \ll r$, $|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'| \approx r - \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}'$, where $\hat{n} = \vec{x}/r \Rightarrow$

$$\lim_{kr\to\infty} \vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\mu_o}{4\pi} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') e^{-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'} d^3x'. \tag{27}$$

- We see that $\vec{A}(x,t) = \vec{A}(\vec{x})e^{-i\omega t}$ represents a spherical wave travelling outwards.
- In addition, (tarea) using Eqs 25 and 26 we also see that E and \vec{H} also form spherical transverse waves (orthogonal to \hat{n}).
- The far zone thus corresponds to the radiation zone, also called wave zone.



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3.2- Dipolar radiation Dipolar radiation

• We now use $d \ll \lambda$ to simplify \vec{A} in the wave zone. The integrand in Eq. 27 can be expanded in powers of $-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'$, using

$$e^{-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} (\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}')^n.$$

• Therefore,

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') (\hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}')^n d^3 x'.$$
 (28)



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3.2- Dipolar radiation Dipolar radiation

• For n = 0, which is the dominant term in the expansion in $k\hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}'$, we get:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') d^3x'. \tag{29}$$

- Using the continuity equation, $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$, we have $i\omega \rho = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}$.
- Therefore (tarea):

$$\int \vec{J}(\vec{x}')d^3x' = -\int \vec{x}'(\vec{\nabla}' \cdot \vec{J})d^3x' = -i\omega \int \vec{x}'\rho(\vec{x}')d^3x'.$$
(30)

Finally,

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{-i\mu_{\circ}\omega}{4\pi} \vec{p} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}, \text{ with } \underbrace{\vec{p} = \int \vec{x}' \rho(\vec{x}') d^3 x'}_{\text{elecric dipole}}.$$
 (31)



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3.2- Dipolar radiation Dipolar radiation

• We now calculate the \vec{E} and \vec{H} fields:

$$\vec{H} = \frac{ck^2}{4\pi} (\hat{n} \times \vec{p}) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}, \vec{E} = \sqrt{\mu_{\odot}} \epsilon_{\odot} \vec{H} \times \hat{n},$$
(32)

where we see that electric dipole radiation is linearly polarized.

• The power emitted in direction \hat{n} can be written with $dP = r^2 d\Omega \hat{n} \cdot \vec{S} \Rightarrow$,

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{1}{2} \Re \left[r^2 \hat{n} \cdot (\vec{E} \times \vec{H}^*) \right],$$

$$= \frac{c^2}{32\pi^2} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_o}{\epsilon_o}} k^4 |\vec{p}|^2 \sin^2(\theta). \tag{33}$$

The total power is

$$P = \frac{c^2 k^4}{12\pi} |\vec{p}|^2. \tag{34}$$



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3.3-Magnetic dipole and electric quadrupole radiation

- The next term in the expansion of $e^{-ik\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}'} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} (\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}')^n$ corresponds to n=1.
- Eq. 28 gives:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \left(\frac{1}{r} - ik \right) \int \vec{J}(\vec{x}') (\hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}') d^3 x'. \tag{35}$$

 This term originates magnetic dipole and electric quadrupole contributions. To see this, we separate the integrand:

$$\vec{J}(\vec{x}')(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}') = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}\left[(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{x}')\vec{J} + (\hat{n}\cdot\vec{J})\vec{x}'\right]}_{A} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\vec{x}'\times\vec{J})\times\hat{n}}_{B}.$$
(36)

• We first consider the contribution of part B and identify the magnetization $\vec{\mathcal{M}}$,

$$\vec{\mathcal{M}} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{x} \times \vec{J}). \tag{37}$$



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3.3-Magnetic dipole and electric quadrupole radiation

• Then, for the B part,

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{ik\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi}(\hat{n} \times \vec{m}) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} (1 - \frac{1}{ikr}), \text{ with}$$
 (38)

$$\vec{m} = \int \vec{\mathcal{M}} d^3 x. \tag{39}$$

• In the radiation zone, $kr \gg 1$, we obtain:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{ik\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi}(\hat{n}\times\vec{m})\frac{e^{ikr}}{r}, \tag{40}$$

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x}) = -\frac{k^2}{4\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{\circ}}{\epsilon_{\circ}}} (\hat{n} \times \vec{m}) \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}, \tag{41}$$

$$\vec{H}(\vec{x}) = -\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_o}{\mu_o}}(\vec{E} \times \hat{n}).$$
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This contribution is called magnetic dipole radiation.



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3.3-Magnetic dipole and electric quadrupole radiation

 For the A part in the contribution from n = 1, after standard handling we get:

$$A = \frac{i\omega}{2} \int \vec{x}'(\hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}') \rho(\vec{x}') d^3x', \tag{43}$$

which represents order 2 moments of $\rho(\vec{x}')$, i.e. an electric quadrupole contribution, which we will not develop.



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4.1- Liénard-Wiechert potentials

- Consider a particle with charge q and trajectory $\vec{r}(t)$, with velocity $\vec{u}(t)$.
- We can apply the retarded solution with source terms $\rho(\vec{x},t) = q\delta(\vec{x}-\vec{r}(t))$, and $\vec{j}(\vec{x},t) = \rho(\vec{x},t)u(t)$, and thus obtain the resulting potentials (tarea):

$$\Phi(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \left[\frac{q}{\left(1 - \hat{n}(t') \cdot \vec{\beta}(t')\right) R(t')} \right]_{\text{ret}}, \quad (44)$$

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{4\pi} \left[\frac{q\vec{u}}{\left(1 - \hat{n}(t') \cdot \vec{\beta}(t')\right) R(t')} \right]_{\text{ret}}, \quad (45)$$

where $\vec{R}(t') = \vec{x} - \vec{r}(t')$, $R = |\vec{R}|$, $\hat{n}(t') = \frac{\vec{R}}{R}$, and $\vec{\beta}(t') = \frac{\vec{u}(t')}{c}$. These are the Liénard-Wiechert (L.-W.) potentials.



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4.1- Liénard-Wiechert potentials

 We can also calculate the corresponding electromagnetic field (tarea):

$$\vec{E}(\vec{x},t) = \underbrace{\left[\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \frac{(1-\beta^{2})(\hat{n}-\vec{\beta})}{R^{2}(1-\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\beta})^{3}}\right]_{\text{ret}}}_{+\underbrace{\left[\frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_{\circ}} \frac{(\hat{n}\times((\hat{n}-\vec{\beta})\times\dot{\vec{\beta}}))}{cR(1-\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\beta})^{3}}\right]_{\text{ret}}}_{E_{\text{rad}}}$$
(46)

with

$$\vec{B}(\vec{x},t) = \frac{1}{c}\hat{n} \times \vec{E}(\vec{x},t). \tag{47}$$



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4.1- Liénard-Wiechert potentials

• We see that far away from the particle, the term labelled $E_{\rm rad}$ will eventually dominate. In fact, for a Fourier component, or for harmonic motion with $\vec{r}(t) \propto \exp(i\omega t)$, we find that (tarea)

$$\frac{E_{\rm rad}}{E_{\rm vel}} = \beta \frac{R}{\lambda},\tag{48}$$

and we see that the radiation term dominates if $R \gg \lambda/\beta$, sometimes also called the *far zone*.



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4.2- Larmor Formula

• In the far zone, with $R \to \infty$, and in the Galilean limit $(\beta \ll 1)$, the power radiated per unit solid angle is (tarea):

$$\frac{dP}{d\Omega} = \frac{\mu_{\circ}}{16\pi^2} q^2 a^2 \sin^2(\theta), \tag{49}$$

in which $a = |\vec{u}|$ and θ is the angle between \hat{n} and \vec{a} . This is the Larmor formula.

- By applying Eq. 49 to the case of an harmonically oscilating charge with dipole $\vec{p} = q\vec{r}_{\circ} \exp(i\omega t)$, we can recover Eq. 33 (tarea).
- We therefore conclude that the wave zone as defined in Sec. 1 matches the Galilean limit (see the discussion on the dipole approximation in Sec. 3.3 of Rybicki & Lightman).



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4.3- Radiation reaction

- Let's consider a periodic sistem, such that its mechanical state is identical between times t₁ and t₂.
- Still in the Galilean limit, the total energy radiated by the charge between t₁ and t₂ is

$$W = \frac{\mu_{\circ} q^2}{6\pi c} \int_{t1}^{t2} a^2 dt.$$
 (50)

 Energy conservation requires the existence of 'radiation reaction' force F_{rad}, such that W is extracted from the particle's kinetic energy,

$$\int_{t1}^{t2} dt \vec{F}_{\text{rad}} \cdot \vec{u} = -W. \tag{51}$$

 One expression for the radiation reaction is the Abraham-Lorentz formula,

$$\vec{F}_{\rm rad} = \frac{\mu_{\rm o} q^2}{6\pi c} \dot{\vec{a}}.$$
 (52)

We can confirm that Eq. 52 indeeds fullfills Eq. 51 (tarea).



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5- Non-relativistic applications

- Thomson scattering (Rybicki & Lightman Sec. 3.4)
- Harmonically bound particles (Rybicki & Lightman Sec. 3.6)



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